

# An early extrasolar planetary system revealed by planetesimal belts in $\beta$ Pictoris

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$\beta$  Pictoris ( $\beta$  Pic) is a main-sequence star with an edge-on dust disk<sup>1–3</sup> that might represent a state of the early Solar System. The dust does not seem to be a remnant from the original protoplanetary disk, but rather is thought to have been generated from large bodies like planetesimals and/or comets<sup>4,5</sup>. The history and composition of the parent bodies can therefore be revealed by determining the spatial distribution, grain size, composition and crystallinity of the dust through high-resolution mid-infrared observations. Here we report that the sub-micrometre amorphous silicate grains around  $\beta$  Pic have peaks in their distribution around 6, 16 and 30 AU (1 AU is the Sun–Earth distance), whereas the crystalline and micrometre-sized amorphous silicate grains are concentrated in the disk centre. As sub-micrometre grains are blown quickly out from the system by radiation pressure from the central star, the peaks indicate the locations of ongoing dust replenishment, which originates from ring-like distributions of planetesimals or ‘planetesimal belts’.

$\beta$  Pic is a nearby (19.28 pc = 63 light yr)<sup>6</sup>, young (20 Myr)<sup>7</sup>, A5V Vega-like star. A high-resolution 17.9- $\mu$ m image of its inner disk (radius  $r < 100$  AU) has revealed the existence of dust rings at 14, 28, 52 and 82 AU (ref. 8). The locations of the rings correspond to the region inside the Edgeworth–Kuiper belt (50 AU) of our Solar System, where the planets are formed. The rings indicate a planetary system containing multiple planets, though the nature of the rings remains an open question. During planetary system formation, the materials in protoplanetary disks experience substantial processing. Whereas silicate grains are observed as amorphous in interstellar space, partially crystallized silicate grains are sometimes found in protoplanetary disks<sup>9,10</sup> and comets<sup>11</sup>. Dust emission of  $\beta$  Pic also shows the 9.7- $\mu$ m amorphous silicate feature and the 11.2- $\mu$ m crystalline olivine ((Mg,Fe)<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>) feature, like some comets<sup>12</sup>. Coexistence of crystalline silicates with icy cold materials in comets is paradoxical, because the crystallization of amorphous silicates by annealing requires high temperatures (>1,000 K)<sup>13</sup>. Investigations of the locations of amorphous and crystalline silicates in  $\beta$  Pic provide key information to help the understanding of the crystallization and evolution of dust grains in an early stage of the planetary disk.

We made 10- $\mu$ m-band spectroscopic observations ( $\lambda/\Delta\lambda \approx 250$ , where  $\lambda$  indicates wavelength) of  $\beta$  Pic with the Cooled Mid-Infrared Camera and Spectrometer (COMICS)<sup>14–16</sup> on the 8.2-m

Subaru Telescope with high spatial resolution. The obtained spectra are shown in Fig. 1. The spectra for the central part (Fig. 1j–l) are clearly different from the other spectra. They have emission peaks at 10.05, 10.30, 10.40, 11.05 and 11.90  $\mu$ m. Three of them match with the Mg-pure crystalline olivine (forsterite, Mg<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>) peaks (10.06, 10.42 and 11.89  $\mu$ m)<sup>17</sup>. The 11.24- $\mu$ m peak of forsterite in laboratory data<sup>17</sup> can be shifted to 11.1  $\mu$ m by the shape effect. The spectra between 8.0 and 13.2  $\mu$ m were fitted by a least-squares method with model spectra composed of 0.1- and 2- $\mu$ m-radii glassy olivine<sup>18</sup>, crystalline forsterite<sup>17</sup>, and power-law continuum emission. The 0.1- $\mu$ m and 2.0- $\mu$ m grains represent small (grain radius  $s \leq 1 \mu$ m) and large ( $s \approx$  a few  $\mu$ m) grains, respectively. The power-law emission takes account of the residual emission, and the index is given as a free parameter. The derived spatial distribution of each dust emission (Fig. 2) indicates that the 2- $\mu$ m glassy olivine and the crystalline forsterite are concentrated in the disk centre. In contrast, the 0.1- $\mu$ m glassy olivine does not exhibit a central concentration, but has distribution peaks at 6.4 AU in both sides with weak humps around 16 and 29 AU in the northeast side and around 32 AU in the southwest side. Even when the residual continuum is fitted with a grey-body dust emission (emissivity  $\epsilon \approx \text{const.}$ ) or dust emission of  $\epsilon \propto 1/\lambda$ , the peaks of the 0.1- $\mu$ m glassy olivine at 6.4 and 16 AU are unambiguously present. Only in the case of the  $\epsilon \propto 1/\lambda$  emissivity are the humps around 30 AU not seen clearly.

In the  $\beta$  Pic system, grains smaller than 1.5  $\mu$ m should be blown out, because the ratio of radiation pressure to gravity ( $\beta$ ) exceeds unity according to calculation<sup>19</sup> and revised luminosity (8.7 times solar luminosity)<sup>6</sup>. The fact that a large amount of small grains exist around 6.4 AU indicates that small grains are being replenished at this radius at present. The weak distribution peaks at 16 and 30 AU suggest that these two radii are also places of ongoing replenishment of small grains. They correspond to the dust rings seen in 17.9  $\mu$ m at 14 and 28 AU (ref. 8).

If the grains are replenished by planetesimal collisions, it is likely that not only small grains but also large grains are simultaneously replenished at the same radii. However, grains of a few micrometres in size fall towards the central star by Poynting–Robertson drag, and are concentrated in the disk centre (grain density  $n(r) \propto r^{-1}$ ) in a steady state<sup>20</sup>. Convolution of the point spread function (PSF) with the disk emission distribution derived by assuming grain surface density scales as  $\Sigma(r) \propto (1/r)r \approx r^0$  and the temperature profile in Fig. 2 accounts for the observed PSF-like distribution of the 2- $\mu$ m grains fairly well.

Infalling large amorphous grains will be heated to a temperature high enough to be crystallized near the star by stellar radiation. Crystalline forsterite can be produced by such thermal annealing. Grains of 2- $\mu$ m size reach a classical annealing temperature of 1,000 K (ref. 13) at 0.3 AU from the star. A recent paper reported the activation energy required to crystallize Mg<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> smokes, suggesting that the crystallization can occur in 3 yr at 800 K (ref. 21); this annealing temperature can be obtained at 0.6 AU. The unresolved profile of the crystalline forsterite ( $a_3$ , defined in Fig. 2 legend) indicates that crystalline forsterite is concentrated in a very compact central region. The upper limit of the crystallinity of the silicate grains replenished at 6.4 AU is estimated as 10% ( $2\sigma$  level), which seems rather low to explain the observed crystalline mass discussed below. These two facts support annealing by the central star. The spectrum taken by the Infrared Space Observatory (ISO) does not show any 20–40- $\mu$ m crystalline silicate features<sup>22</sup>, suggesting that the temperature of crystalline grains (if they exist) is no lower than 500 K, otherwise the 20–40- $\mu$ m features would become more than one-third of the 10- $\mu$ m features (in Jy). Because the mass absorption coefficient of crystalline forsterite in the 3- $\mu$ m region is less than that at 11.24  $\mu$ m by more than two orders of magnitude, emission at 3  $\mu$ m from forsterite grains is estimated to be less than 0.08 Jy. It is consistent with the ISO spectrum.

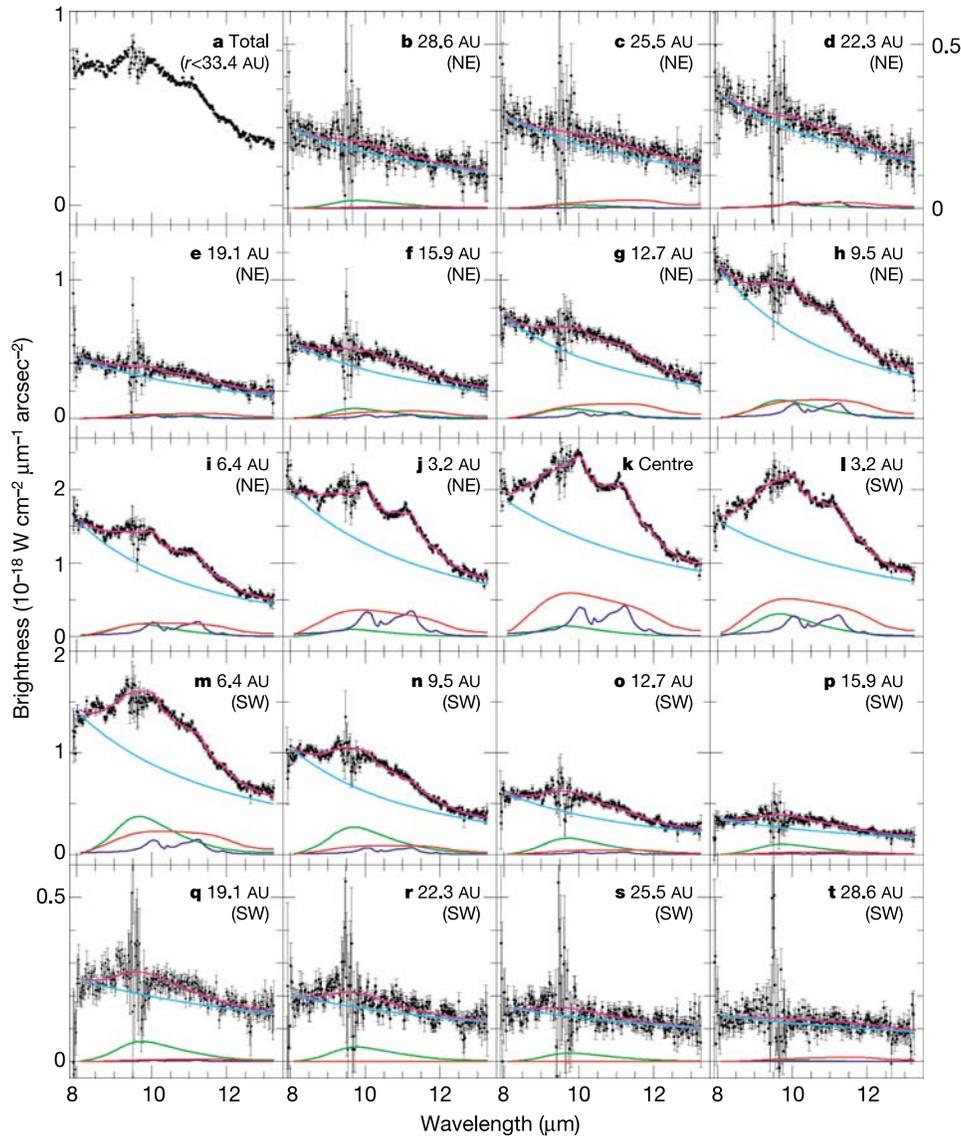
What is the replenishing source for the grains around 6.4, 16 and

30 AU? The most likely process is collisions among planetesimals in planetesimal belts similar to the asteroid belt in our Solar System (Fig. 3). The masses of 0.1- $\mu\text{m}$  dust in the belts at 6.4, 16 and 30 AU are all similar to each other ( $1 \times 10^{16}$  kg for each of the 6.4, 16 and 30 AU emissions in the northeast side, and  $7 \times 10^{16}$  kg for the whole southwest side). It suggests that three belts supply grains almost equally. The asymmetry of the 6.4-AU small grain enhancement indicates that the 6.4-AU belt is slightly inclined compared to the outer disk (Fig. 3).

Alternatively, evaporation from cometary bodies infalling towards the star could also be a grain replenishment source. It is,

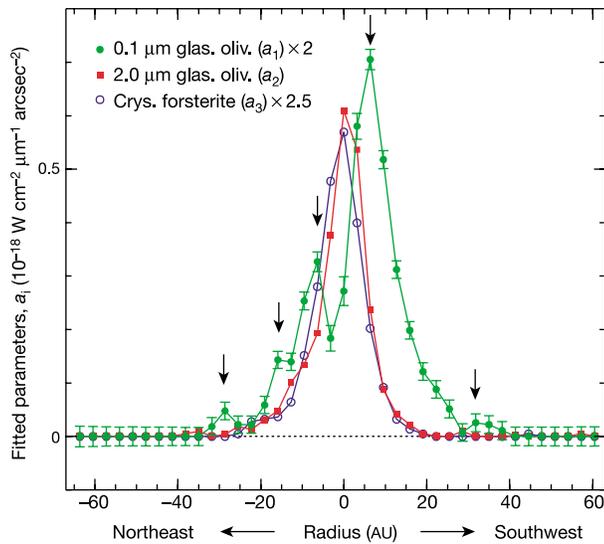
however, difficult to explain by this process the depletion of small grains in the disk centre, the grain replenishment at 16 and 30 AU. Also, grains with large-eccentricity orbits typical of comets are more easily blown out than grains with circular orbits, even if the  $\beta$  value is small. Replenishment in the planetesimal belts is thus the most likely dust supply mechanism in  $\beta$  Pic.

The discovered planetesimal belts may be formed by the gravitational perturbation of planetesimals in unstable orbits due to resonance with possible large planets. In the Solar System, the mean motion resonance plays an important role in the relation



**Figure 1** Spectra of  $\beta$  Pic after subtraction of the photospheric emission. **a**, The spectrum integrated along the slit for the  $r < 33.4$  AU region. It shows a peak at  $11.1 \mu\text{m}$  and  $\sim 9.7 \mu\text{m}$  and a hump around  $12 \mu\text{m}$  seen in past observations<sup>12</sup>. **b–t**, The spectrum for each spatial pixel within 26 AU. The position within the disk is indicated in each panel. Northeast and southwest directions are indicated as NE and SW, respectively. The black points with error bars (s.d.) indicate the observed spectra. The atmospheric ozone absorption significantly degrades the signal to noise (S/N) ratio between  $9.3$  and  $9.9 \mu\text{m}$ . The magenta lines are fitted spectra, and the other coloured lines indicate the contribution from each component:  $0.1\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  radius amorphous silicate (green),  $2.0\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  radius amorphous silicate (red), crystalline forsterite (blue), and power-law continuum component (cyan). The fitting formula is given in the legend of Fig. 2. The  $11.05\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  peak

in the spectra of the disk centre is an unidentified dust feature or line emission overlying the  $11.1\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  peak. The observations were long-slit spectroscopy, made on 11 and 12 December 2003 (UT). We used the  $0.33''$ -width slit with a position angle of  $30^\circ$ , almost along the outer disk. The pixel scale was  $0.165''$ . The stellar component is subtracted assuming a  $8,200$  K blackbody and using the PSF from the standard stars, whose full-width at half-maximum is  $0.8''$ . Among all the data acquired in more than 3 h of integration time, we have selected 2,983-s data taken under good seeing conditions to obtain a spatial resolution as high as possible. For this selection, the spatial profile of each data file was fitted with a gaussian, and data with the standard deviation of the gaussian no larger than  $0.4''$  were used.

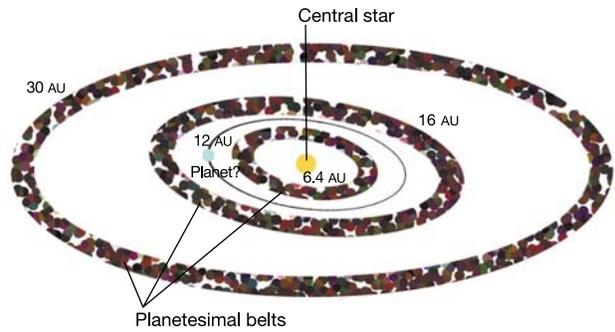


**Figure 2** Distribution of each dust emission. The spatial profile of each fit parameter,  $a_i$ , which is the brightness of each dust component at 10  $\mu\text{m}$  scaled by each normalized mass absorption coefficient, is shown. The fitting formula is given by  $F(\lambda) = a_0(\lambda/10 \mu\text{m})^n + \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \kappa_i(\lambda) B(\lambda, T_i) / B(10 \mu\text{m}, T_i)$ , where  $F(\lambda)$  is the observed flux at wavelength  $\lambda$  ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) in  $10^{-18} \text{ W cm}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ arcsec}^{-2}$ ,  $a_i$  and  $\kappa_i$  are the normalization factors and the mass absorption coefficients normalized as in our recent paper<sup>10</sup>, respectively. The normalizing constants in  $\text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$  for the 0.1- and 2.0- $\mu\text{m}$  glassy olivine and crystalline forsterite are 2,372.3, 1,664.6 and 2,476.6, respectively. The suffix  $i$  indicates three dust species: 0.1- $\mu\text{m}$  radius glassy olivine<sup>18</sup> (1; green), 2- $\mu\text{m}$  radius glassy olivine<sup>18</sup> (2; red), and crystalline forsterite<sup>17</sup> (3; blue). Typical errors for  $a_2$  and  $a_3$  are 0.008 and 0.005 ( $10^{-18} \text{ W cm}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ arcsec}^{-2}$ ), respectively. The errors are in s.e. The continuum emission in the spectra is expressed in the power law of index  $n$  with the normalization factor  $a_0$ . The temperatures of amorphous grains<sup>24,8</sup> are assumed to be given by  $T_i(\text{K}) = 468 (L/s_\odot)^{0.2} r^{-0.4}$ , where  $L$  is the luminosity of the central star (8.7 times the solar luminosity)<sup>5</sup>,  $s_i$  is the grain radius in  $\mu\text{m}$ , and  $r$  is the disk radius in AU at the inner side of each pixel. Their temperatures are assumed to be 700 K at the central pixel. The temperature of crystalline forsterite is assumed to be 1,200 K, since the spatial profile is similar to the PSF (only the width of the profile is about 0.8 times of that of the PSF). Black arrows indicate the distribution peaks of 0.1- $\mu\text{m}$  amorphous silicate grains and the detection of enhancements around 30 AU is marginal. Even if we use the derived distribution of  $a_3$  as the PSF instead of the standard star's profile to subtract the stellar component, the resultant distributions of the components are not changed.

between the planets and the debris belts, such as the asteroid belt and the Edgeworth–Kuiper belt (EKB). The outer and inner edges of the asteroid belt are in 2:1 and 4:1 resonance relations with Jupiter, respectively. If the same relations hold for the 6.4-AU belt around  $\beta$  Pic, the semi-major axis of the planet in resonance and the width of the 6.4-AU belts are estimated as 12 AU and 3 AU, respectively. The latter value is consistent with the belt width unresolved in our observations. The planet at 12 AU is also in a 3:2 resonance relation with the 16-AU belt—like the relation between Neptune and plutons in the EKB objects.

By assuming that replenished small grains are blown out within the free-fall time (a few to several tens of years), their replenishment rate from each belt is estimated as about  $10^{15}$ – $10^{16} \text{ kg yr}^{-1}$ . This is  $10^5$ – $10^6$  times larger than the replenishment rate of the zodiacal dust<sup>23</sup>, and there must be a much larger number of planetesimals than asteroids in the present Solar System. The  $\beta$  Pic system is likely to be at a violent planetesimal collision stage in an early solar system.

To estimate the mass of the 2- $\mu\text{m}$  amorphous and crystalline grains, we assume that the grains are supplied at 6.4 AU as amorphous grains, falling by Poynting–Robertson drag in a steady condition, all being crystallized within the crystallization radius



**Figure 3** Conceptual view of the discovered planetesimal belts. The locations of the belts are estimated from the dust distribution in Fig. 2. The coloured small dots indicate the planetesimals making up the belts. Planetesimals in the three belts are replenishing amorphous silicate grains by their collisions. The 6.4-AU belt seems to be inclined compared to the outer disk, as the small grain enhancement around 6.4 AU is larger for the southwest side than for the northeast side (Fig. 2). This asymmetry can be explained by a combination of the inclined position angle of the 6.4-AU belt and the present slit position slightly shifted towards the southeast. It is supported by the fact that the inner disk ( $r < 20 \text{ AU}$ ) has been found to be inclined against the outer disk from the mid-infrared images<sup>25</sup>. The inclination of the 16-AU belt against the outer disk is derived from the 14-AU dust ring in the 17.9- $\mu\text{m}$  image<sup>8</sup>.

$r_c$ , and evaporated at 0.11 AU, where grains reach a temperature of 1,500 K. If the crystallization temperature is assumed to be 800 K ( $r_c = 0.6 \text{ AU}$ )<sup>21</sup>, the estimated dust masses of the (2- $\mu\text{m}$ ) amorphous and crystalline grains are respectively  $3 \times 10^{17} \text{ kg}$  and  $7 \times 10^{15} \text{ kg}$ . Taking account of the uncertainties in the assumed temperature profile (Fig. 2) as well as in the density distribution, this suggests that it is reasonable to surmise that the crystalline grains are formed from the amorphous grains near the central star by the stellar radiation. Detailed self-consistent models are required for more precise discussions. □

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## Magnesium sulphate salts and the history of water on Mars

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Recent reports of ~30 wt% of sulphate within saline sediments on Mars<sup>1,2</sup>—probably occurring in hydrated form<sup>3</sup>—suggest a role for sulphates in accounting for equatorial H<sub>2</sub>O observed in a global survey by the Odyssey spacecraft<sup>4</sup>. Among salt hydrates likely to be present<sup>3</sup>, those of the MgSO<sub>4</sub>·nH<sub>2</sub>O series have many hydration states. Here we report the exposure of several of these phases to varied temperature, pressure and humidity to constrain their possible H<sub>2</sub>O contents under martian surface conditions. We found that crystalline structure and H<sub>2</sub>O content are dependent on temperature–pressure history, that an amorphous hydrated phase with slow dehydration kinetics forms at <1% relative humidity, and that equilibrium calculations may not reflect the true H<sub>2</sub>O-bearing potential of martian soils. Mg sulphate salts can retain sufficient H<sub>2</sub>O to explain a portion of the Odyssey observations<sup>5</sup>. Because phases in the MgSO<sub>4</sub>·nH<sub>2</sub>O system are sensitive to temperature and humidity, they can reveal much about the history of water on Mars. However, their ease of transformation implies that salt hydrates collected on Mars will not be returned to Earth unmodified, and that accurate *in situ* analysis is imperative.

Direct evidence for sulphate salts on Mars dates back to recognition of an Mg–S correlation in X-ray fluorescence data collected by Viking in 1976 at two widely separated landing sites<sup>6</sup>. The Viking data led to the concept of Mg sulphate salt as a widespread cementing agent at ~10 wt% (anhydrous basis) in martian soils<sup>7</sup>, particularly as a shallow ‘duricrust’ within the upper few centimetres of soil. The concept of widespread Mg sulphate salt distribution in soils was reinforced by detection of similar Mg–S

correlations at the Pathfinder landing site in 1997 (refs 8, 9), and by recent determination of comparable Mg–S compositions in soils and within a possible coating of cemented dust on the rock Mazatzal at Gusev crater<sup>10</sup>. Global thermal inertia data<sup>11</sup> and thermal emission spectroscopy<sup>12</sup> suggest that duricrust may cover vast tracts of land at the martian equator. Widespread distribution of sulphate salt as a cementing agent in soil may be attributed to a relatively young pedogenic process, possibly acidic weathering, that does not require surface water or ground water<sup>13,14</sup>. A pedogenic origin remains plausible for this particular mode of occurrence, but results from the Mars Exploration Rover Opportunity at Meridiani Planum<sup>1,2</sup> provide compelling evidence that sediments rich in sulphate salts formed on Mars by evaporation from water.

The Odyssey orbiter has recently provided global maps of water-equivalent hydrogen that reveal surprisingly high abundances of near-surface hydrogen (~9–11 wt% H<sub>2</sub>O equivalent<sup>4</sup>) in widespread equatorial regions where water ice is unstable to sublimation<sup>15</sup>. The observed H suggests the presence of hydrous silicates or salt hydrates in the upper 1 m of regolith<sup>16,17</sup>. It has been known since Viking that lesser amounts of Cl and minor amounts of Br are associated with S, and the hydroxylated K–Fe<sup>3+</sup> sulphate mineral jarosite (20% OH; 11% H<sub>2</sub>O equivalent) has been found at Meridiani Planum<sup>1</sup>, all of which point to a complex salt assemblage for which many possible mineralogies have been suggested<sup>18</sup>. Nevertheless, the widespread Mg–S association observed by Viking, Pathfinder and the MER rovers indicates that some form of MgSO<sub>4</sub>·nH<sub>2</sub>O is common in soils that are globally distributed on Mars.

The only common, naturally occurring members of the MgSO<sub>4</sub>·nH<sub>2</sub>O series on Earth are epsomite (MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 51 wt% water), hexahydrate (MgSO<sub>4</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O, 47 wt% water) and kieserite (MgSO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, 13 wt% water). These three salts are believed to be the only members that occur on Earth as thermodynamically stable minerals<sup>19</sup>. Rare, metastable minerals of the series include pentahydrate (MgSO<sub>4</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O, 43 wt% water), starkeyite (MgSO<sub>4</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O, 37 wt% water) and sanderite (MgSO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 23 wt% water). Other hydration states ( $n = 12, 3, 1.25$ ) are not recognized as minerals but can be synthesized. All of these salts consist of SO<sub>4</sub> tetrahedra and Mg(O, H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub> octahedra; some include extra-polyhedral water (water that is not in octahedral coordination with Mg)<sup>20</sup>. Epsomite transforms readily to hexahydrate by loss of extra-polyhedral water; this transition is reversible and occurs at ~50–55% relative humidity (RH) at 298 K and at lower temperatures as the activity of water diminishes<sup>19</sup>. Kieserite is more stable at lower RH and higher temperature; for example, at moderate heating rates in thermogravimetric analysis the kieserite structure survives to ~670 K, compared with ~450 K for hexahydrate. However, as we show here, kieserite converts to hexahydrate or epsomite as humidity increases, yet these phases do not easily revert to kieserite on desiccation. Metastability, kinetic effects and pathway dependence are important factors in the MgSO<sub>4</sub>·nH<sub>2</sub>O system.

We have examined formation and transformation of MgSO<sub>4</sub>·nH<sub>2</sub>O minerals precipitated by evaporation from MgSO<sub>4</sub> solutions or transformed in the solid state under conditions of controlled temperature and humidity. These experiments include formation at conditions of ~1 torr total pressure, which is slightly less than Mars’ atmospheric pressure (~5 torr at most equatorial elevations). Other experiments have been conducted<sup>17</sup> at temperatures from 100 to 298 K, and from 10<sup>–5</sup> torr to ambient pressure (~580 torr in our laboratory at 2,265 m elevation). In addition, we have used thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and isothermal controlled-humidity gravimetric analysis to examine water gain and loss from MgSO<sub>4</sub>·nH<sub>2</sub>O samples. Our most extensive data consist of X-ray diffraction (XRD) analyses collected while samples were held in an environmental cell<sup>21</sup> at controlled RH and ambient temperature (~298 K) inside the diffractometer.